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AUTHOR	Kovach, John A.
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ABSTRACT

A basic survey was conducted to determine the need for educational services of adult Indians throughout the continental United States plus Alaska and Hawaii. The study involved three survey instruments: (1) a field interview administered to over 4,100 Indian adults; (2) a survey of state education association directors; and (3) a survey of Indian Education Act Title IV, Part C, program directors. Final survey results have not yet been tabulated. However, problems related to survey research of adult American Indians have been identified as well as methodological solutions, which were utilized in the present study to remedy these problems. Relevance of adult education literature to adult American Indians has also been considered. It was suggested that perhaps many adult educators are involved in programs and practices which are guided by false theories of adult learning and the effects of adult education. (Author/BM)

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ISSUES AND PROBLEMS IN THE NEEDS ASSESSMENT OF UNIQUE TARGET GROUPS: THE ADULT AMERICAN INDIAN

John A. Kovach
National Indian Management Service
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Abstract

The Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Indian Education, has awarded three grants to the National Indian Management Service of America, Inc. (NIMS), to conduct a basic survey to determine the need for educational services of adult Indians throughout the continental United States plus Alaska and Hawaii.

The study involves three survey instruments: 1) a field interview administered to over 4,100 Indian adults; 2) a survey of state education association directors; and, 3) a survey of Indian Education Act Title IV, Part C program directors. Final survey results have not yet been tabulated. Problems related to survey research of adult American Indians are discussed as well as methodological solutions which were utilized in the present work to remedy these problems. Consideration of the relevance of adult education literature to adult American Indians is also offered. It is suggested that perhaps many adult educators are involved in programs and practices which are guided by false theories of adult learning and the effects of adult education.

ADULT EDUCATION NEEDS AND PROGRAMS FOR AMERICAN INDIANS

Background of the Survey

Recent documents have examined the status of adult education in this country in terms of participant numbers and characteristics, program trends and impact, and financial support and growth. While the overall enrollment rates have increased generally, there appears to be a declining trend of participation in adult education programs among non-white, poor, less educated adults (Galladay, 1977; NACAE, 1977; Orso, 1975; Rosental, 1976).

Estimates of the number of illiterates or uneducated adults in the United States vary considerably depending on the definitions and methods of assessment used. Under the current legislation, the Office of Education uses less than twelfth grade educational attainment as the criterion and measure of under education. Some fifteen million adults fall below the eighth grade level and constitute the primary target group for the Adult Basic Education Program. Adults who have completed eighth grade, but who lack a high school diploma--some thirty-seven million--constitute a secondary target group for the program. Regardless of the criterion used, those who are judged to be functionally incompetent have similar characteristics: low income, low education, minority status, and/or speak English as a second language. Also, a fairly high proportion are over sixty years of age and live in the southeastern regions of the United States.

Dr. Mary F. Berry, Assistant Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare for Education, in her recent testimony before the Education Sub-Committee of the Senate Committee on Human Resources, described the impact of the Adult Basic Education Program established under the Economic Opportunity Act:

> Evaluations of the ABE Program indicate that few of the target populations participate and that even when they do participate, relatively few are helped by the program. The major difficulties are poor outreach and the use of teaching methods which are adequate for young children but are offensive to adults and work poorly. The targeted population needs the services that are provided but the services are not being made available in the form to which that population has access. (Berry, 1977)

While the studies and the observations referred to above have described an adult population with needs, skill deficiencies, and program services, none have isolated the target group which is addressed in this survey--American Indian adults. The discussions of the functionally incompetent have failed to describe the status of adult American Indians whose low economic position and low educational attainment falls far short of the standards most adults enjoy in this country.

According to the most recent figures available, approximately one-half of all reservation Indians and one-fifth of all urban families earn less than $4,000 a year (the income level which separated poor families of average size from non-poor in 1969; Sorkin, 1978). Table 1 presents the income statistics for Indian, Black, and White males for the years 1939-69.

TABLE 1

MEDIAN INCOME FOR MALE INDIANS, BLACKS, AND WHITES, 1939–69* (1969 DOLLARS)

YEAR	INCOME				
	ALL INDIANS	URBAN INDIANS	RESERVATION INDIANS	BLACKS	WHITES
1939	—	—	$ 576	$1,066	$2,035
1944	—	—	760	1,843	3,506
1949	$1,094	$1,198	950	2,218	3,780
1959	2,218	2,961	1,699	3,398	5,229
1964	—	—	2,074	3,947	6,743
1969	3,509	4,568	2,603	4,508	7,759
Percentage increase 1939–69	—	—	352	323	281
Percentage increase 1949–69	220	281	174	103	105

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census, *Current Population Reports*, Series P–60, nos. 5, 7, and 47, *Income of Families and Persons in the United States* (1965), pp. 51–51; U.S. Bureau of Indian Affairs, "Reservation Income, 1939" (unpublished), Bureau of the Census, 1940 Census of Population, *The Labor Force*, table 71, p. 116 and the volume on *Education*, table 31, p. 161; U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1950 Census of Population, *Nonwhite Population by Race* (1953), table 10, p. 32, and table 21, p. 72, *Occupational Characteristics* (1956), table 10, p. 183, and table 21, p. 215; U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1960 Census of Population, *Nonwhite Population by Race*, table 33, p. 104, *Occupational Characteristics*, table 25, p. 298, and table 26, p. 215; Bureau of Indian Affairs, "Selected Data on Indian Reservations Eligible for Designation under Public Works and Economic Development Act" (mimeographed, 1968); U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population, *American Indians* (1973), table 13, pp. 181–83, and *Education* (1973), table 7, pp. 149–51.

* Data include all males and all sources of income, whether earned or unearned.

The distribution of the Indian labor force by occupation reveals a concentration among the lowest paying positions. In Table 2, the occupational status of Indians in 1970 was more favorable than that of Blacks. Indians have a higher proportion of professionals, managers, and craftsman with fewer enumerated as operatives, laborers, and service workers than do Blacks.

TABLE 2

PERCENT DISTRIBUTION OF INDIAN, BLACK, AND WHITE MALES BY OCCUPATION GROUP, 1940, 1960, 1970

Occupation Group	Indian					Black			White		
	1940	1960	Total 1970	Urban 1970	Rural 1970	1940	1960	1970	1940	1960	1970
Professional and technical	2.2	4.9	9.2	11.4	6.8	1.8	3.4	5.7	5.9	11.6	14.9
Managers, Officials and Proprietors except Farmers	1.4	2.8	5.0	5.8	4.2	1.3	1.9	2.8	10.7	12.1	12.4
Clerical and Sales	2.0	4.9	8.1	7.3	3.9	2.0	7.0	10.0	14.0	15.1	14.8
Craftsmen and Foremen	5.7	15.5	22.1	23.1	20.9	4.4	10.7	15.4	15.7	21.1	21.9
Operatives	6.2	21.9	23.9	25.6	22.1	12.6	26.7	29.5	18.9	20.1	18.8
Laborers	11.4	20.2	13.2	10.8	15.8	21.4	22.2	16.1	7.5	6.0	6.0
Service Workers	2.6	6.3	10.4	10.8	10.1	15.3	16.0	15.9	6.0	5.7	7.3
Farmers and Managers	46.7	9.5	2.3	0.2	4.6	21.2	4.7	0.9	14.1	5.8	2.8
Farm laborers	21.7	14.0	5.7	1.8	10.2	19.9	7.5	3.6	7.0	2.5	1.5

SOURCE: 1940 Census, *Characteristics of the Nonwhite Population By Race*, table 26, pp. 83-84, and *The Labor Force*, table 62, pp. 88-89; 1960 Census, *Nonwhite Population By Race*, table 33, p. 104, and *Occupational Characteristics*, table 2, pp. 11-20, and table 3, pp. 21-30; 1970 Census of Population, *American Indians*, table 7, p. 86, and U.S. Bureau of the Census, *The Social and Economic Status of Negroes in the United States*, 1970, table 48, p. 60.

The very low level of Indian income is associated with unemployment rates several times those of non-Indians. Table 3 displays the unemployment rates for Blacks and Whites which fell sharply between 1940-60. The unemployment rate for Indians was sixteen percent.

Despite the figures above and the slight correlation between educational attainment, income level and employability, there is virtually no federal or state data which (1) assesses the educational needs of American Indian adults; (2) examines the accessibility of existing adult education programs to Indian adults and the degree to which non-Indian educational agencies provide educational approaches which could be used to deliver effective educational services to Indian adults; (3) identifies the educational approaches which could be used to deliver educational services to Indian adults; and (4) describes the affects of educational programs in adult Indian communities.

TABLE 3

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES, INDIAN, BLACK, AND WHITE MALES, 1940-1975*

YEAR	INDIANS			BLACKS	WHITES
	ALL	URBAN	RESERVATION†		
	(IN PERCENT)				
1940	32.9		—	18.0	14.8
1950		15.1	—	9.6	5.9
1958			43.5	13.8	6.1
1960	38.2	12.1	51.3	10.7	4.8
1962			43.4	10.9	4.6
1965			41.9	7.4	3.6
1967			37.3	6.0	2.7
1970	28.6	9.4	41.0	8.2	4.0
1973			36.5	7.6	3.7
1975			39.8	13.7	7.2

SOURCE: Black and White Males, 1950-75, *Employment and Training Report of the President*, 1976, table A-20, p. 242; 1940 Census, *Characteristics of the Nonwhite Population by Race*, table 25, p. 82, and *The Labor Force*, table 4, p. 18; 1950 Census, *Nonwhite Population by Race*, table 10, p. 32; 1960 Census, *Nonwhite Population by Race*, table 33, p. 104; *Indian Unemployment Survey* (1963); Bureau of Indian Affairs, unpublished tabulation December, 1967; Bureau of Indian Affairs, "Estimates of Resident Indian Population and Labor Force Status by State and Reservation, March, 1973 and April, 1975" (mimeographed, 1973 and 1975).

* Data for Indians 1940-70 and blacks and whites in 1940 include those 14 years old and over; all other data include males 16 years old and over.

† The Bureau of Indian Affairs considers an individual who is not in school or working as unemployed whether the person is actually looking for a job or not. The Department of Labor, in its calculation of national unemployment rates, excludes persons who are not looking for work from the labor force.

The Survey Objectives

The survey objectives were:

(1) To provide a basic survey to define accurately the extent of the problem of illiteracy and lack of high school completion among adult American Indians

(2) To provide information on the operation and the attainment of federal and state supported ABE/GED/SAE (Adult Basic Education/Graduate Equivalent Diploma/Secondary Adult Education) services to adult American Indians

(3) To recommend program strategies for addressing the educational needs of adult American Indians

To accomplish the survey objectives and to comply with the Department of Health, Education and Welfare/Office of Indian Education, the following data requirements were proposed:

(a) descriptive information on the support and availability of adult education within each of the 50 United States;

(b) descriptive information on the adult education programs and their priorities offered within each state;

(c) accessibility of State Education Agency (SEA) programs to adult American Indians;

(d) enrollment figures of Indian participation in state sponsored adult education programs in proportion to identified target populations;

(e) descriptive information on the adult education programs funded through the USOE/Office of Indian Education (OIE);

(f) differences between state sponsored adult education programs and those funded through USOE/OIE;

(g) enrollment figures for adult Indian participation in adult education programs funded through USOE/OIE;

(h) costs and impact of adult education programs funded through USOE/OIE;

(i) measures of basic literacy and coping skills of American Indians; and

(j) adult American Indian reports of their educational needs and aspirations.

Three instruments were designed to collect this data. They included:

(1) A state education association questionnaire of adult education programs which collects the information requirements pertaining to the availability, use, and nature of SEA adult education programs to adult Indians;

(2) Office of Indian Education, Title IV, Part C Program Questionnaire which collects descriptive information upon adult Indian education programs funded to meet the special needs of adult Indians;

(3) A field interview schedule of adult Indian education needs, which includes basic bibliographic information, social and occupational information, educatwonal attainment and aspiration information, and a composite inventory of functional illiteracy which includes measures of reading, writing, and arithmetic.

Significance of the Research

The present research is of pressing importance to Native Americans for two main reasons. First, Congress will no longer appropriate money for special programs under Title IV without needs being first established in some reliable manner. If adult education programs for American Indians are to continue to receive funding, even at the inadequate level which they are presently funded, needs and adequate funding levels must be established for all areas of the U.S. where significant numbers of Indians reside.

The present research is important also for a much more general but far-reaching reason. Adult education for Indians is one important step in presenting the importance of education, in general, to Native Americans. If Native Americans are to take action as a group they must first develop a common consciousness which is directed toward structural change related to their

own interests as American Indians. Adult education and the emphasis on self-determination in Indian education becomes a vital step in sharpening the focus of this common consciousness.

Most recently, American Indians have been faced with the bitter lessons of what ensues when minority groups fail to maintain control over their own education and the teaching of their cultural heritage. A good example is the Wampanoag Tribe of Massachusetts who attempted to claim 16,000 acres in Mashpee, Massachusetts which had been legally theirs as stated in a 180 year old treaty with the federal government. U.S. District Court Judge Walter Skinner upheld a federal jury's March 24, 1978 decision which ruled that the Wampanoag were not legally a tribe when they filed suit in 1976. The jury's verdict stated that since the tribe had failed to maintain and teach their own culture and language, they could not sue for their lands as Indians. In essence, the court was saying that the Wampanoag are no longer Indian.[1]

What Native Americans have hopefully learned from such incidents is that it is imperative for American Indians to cling to their cultural heritage. Self-determination in education is essential. For the past 40 years federal education policy for Indians as well as for minority groups has emphasized educational mainstreaming and cultural assimulation. It is only since the civil rights movements of the 1960's that minority groups

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[1]For more detail on this particular case and other similar ones see Bruce Johansen and Roberto Maestas, Wasi' Chu: The Continuing Indian Wars. New York: Monthly Review Press, 1979.

have recognized the importance of developing a common consciousness as a minority group. American Indians now realize that in order to bring about change for themselves as Indians, they must represent their interests as a separate group, not as part of the mainstream or dominant culture.

American Indian groups now seem to realize that educational mainstreaming is not rational for themselves or minorities who are not given equal life-chances in other areas of society such as employment, housing, politics, etc. This irrationality of federal educational policy for Indians has been reflected in the high dropout rates for American Indians.

METHODOLOGY

Survey Design

The basic survey plan included three separate studies. These related data collection efforts were: (1) an effort to identify the interface of SEA administered adult education programs with the adult Indian communities; (2) a study to identify successful Indian education programs funded through IEA Title IV, Part C and to ascertain the characteristics of the Indian adults being impacted by these programs; and, (3) a field study to describe the demographic characteristics and the functional literacy of adult Indians.

The eastern and western sections of the United States represent marked contrasts in regard of population distributions of Indians. Although recent migration has resulted in the urbanization of many western Indians, the primary density of the

population still remains on large federal reservations. Recent migration and inconsistent federal relationships with eastern Indian tribes have promoted dispersion of Indian families such that that large homogeneous pockets of Indian residents no longer exist. Many Indian families have taken up residence in urban areas where employment opportunities are greater. Other Indian families have found life styles associated with migratory agricultural and fishing occupations. Still others have tended to remain with their tribal groups which appear to be diminishing in density.

The survey design, particularly as it pertains to the field interview schedule, required five sampling or population variables due to expected differences. These five variables were: (1) geography; (2) tribal/cultural; (3) sex; (4) age; and (5) demography. Rational for representativeness requirements can be established through the hypothetical relationships between these five variables and potential differences across these variables.

Geographically, the American Indian population has been grouped into cultural areas or regions by Gastil (1941), Swanton (1952), and Steward (1960). These geographic groupings are similar and are based upon the lifestyles evolving in given cultural terrains such as the eastern forests, the Midwestern plains, the northwestern coasts, the coastal mountains, and the southwest deserts. A slightly modified version of Gastil's groupings was selected for the regional categorization.

Tribes also differ by cultural variables such as ways of life, languages, religions, and art. There are greater differences across regions than within regions. The expected differences within regions may be more associated with the degree of tribal solidarity and the degree of assimilation. Regional selection based upon Gastil's work incorporates both the geographical and cultural differences.

Sex differences are expected to relate to educational need differences which are transmitted through child rearing and social custom. These sex roles often require different skills and social assignments, establishing a hypothetical basis for difference in needs.

Age is a variable in which differences are expected. Young adults, just starting a career and family are expected to have attended and/or require different educational programs and services than the middle-aged adult whose family has already been established. Likewise, adults preparing for retirement require a different configuration of educational programs.

Demographic characteristics such as place of residence, health indicators, income, employment and family size are related to educational needs. The varying living conditions, availability of services, opportunity for employment, types of occupation, and types of community directly affect skill area needs which are developed through education.

Instrumentation and Data Collection

The study of State Education Agency of Adult Education Programs was collected by means of the SEA Questionnaire of

adult education programs through a mail survey of all the 50 state departments of adult education. The study involved initial mail contact with the Chief State School Officer and the SEA Department of Adult Education (this office exists within several different organizational frameworks depending upon the state - all 50 addresses are available). The data collection instrument was followed by telephone contact of those officials who failed to respond. Due to the brevity of the instrument and the SEA experience with the National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES) survey of adult education programs, non-response was not a problem.

The Indian Education Act, Title IV, Part C program questionnaire was also a mail survey of currently funded programs. A cover letter explaining the purpose and design of the study was sent to each of the FY '78 grantees as a means of gaining the cooperation of program directors. The questionnaire was designed to access program information that is within the program director's archives but is not currently available to OIE in usable form. The questionnaire does not require the generation of new data, but instead, focuses upon the accumulation of existing data to describe program characteristics.

The field interview schedule of Indian adult education needs and the composite test of functional literacy were the primary data collection instruments. The study provides previously non-existent data on the needs, educational attainment and functional literacy of Indian adults residing in the continental United States. The feasibility of collecting such

data has been established through a similar basic survey of Indian adults residing in the state of Oklahoma (Hall and Hackbert, 1976).

The core of the research is provided by the field interview. Other surveys, such as the APL, have attempted to describe the educational needs of the general adult population but none have addressed the needs of the target group in the present survey--adult American Indians.

Moreover, there is a lack of data which: 1) assesses the educational attainment of American Indian adults; 2) examines the accessability of existing adult education programs for Indian adults; 3) identifies the educational approaches which have been successful in delivery of services to Indian adults; and, 4) describes the effects and impact of Indian adult education programs. Such data on adult American Indians is urgently needed by the U.S. Congress and other policy-makers in order to make appropriations decisions.

Obtaining such data on American Indians becomes a special problem in itself due to the nature of the target group. First of all, as a group, American Indian adults have been shown to be non-responsive to mail questionnaires. In previous studies of Indian communities, mail surveys have been plagued by high non-response rates. This phenomenon is due to several related causes: 1) there is an hypothesized high rate of illiteracy among the Indian adults from which responses are desired; 2) cultural and historical factors deter Indians from providing information about themselves in an impersonal setting; 3) abuse by researchers

in the study of Indian cultures has generated a mistrust of non-Indian researchers; and, 4) life-styles of Indian families do not promote the value of responding which is often found in other sub-cultural groups. Hence, if individual Indian adult data are to be gained from the Indian community, they must be gained through an interview setting which fosters trust, rapport and individual contact.

The ideal solution to these problems of surveying adult Indians in the present study, seemed to be a structured interview of Indian adults by trained Indian data collectors. Special interviewing procedures were developed to foster trust and Indian community welfare.

Indian data collectors from the respondent's own community were trained and used to conduct the personal interviews. These interviewers were known in the community, supported in their efforts by tribal leaders, and were bi-lingual. Also, support of the project was first sought from tribal leaders in each of the communities sampled. In addition, the fact that interviewers were trained to administer the measures of functional literacy on a one-to-one basis guaranteed accurate measurement of Indian needs in this vital area where little reliable information exists. These special considerations and procedures, then, served to compensate for problems related to: illiteracy among the sample population; cultural/historical and life-style differences of the sample population; and past abuse of the Native American population by survey researchers.

Problems in Sampling Design

Several problems, specific to surveying of American Indian populations, were encountered which required methodological solutions. First, there is a problem related to the choice of a clustering variable. Tribal group residences were first considered as a choice for a clustering variable. This variable was rejected because of the fact that migration from tribal settings has grown in incidence and Indian adults divorced from tribal lands may have different and potentially more severe educational needs.

The second variable proposed was county units of government. Through the selection of counties in the first stage of the sampling selection process, the geography of unselected counties was eliminated. Mere selection out of the sample of a given number of counties still, however, does not eliminate the need to travel to an isolated county for a small number of respondents. Therefore, a minimum cluster or block size is required to increase efficiency. The reduction of the number of counties which have to be visited in order to obtain the desired sample size was directly associated with the reduction of costs. This reduction of thenumber of counties, however, interacts with the representativeness of the sample and a trade-off decision was made in regard to visiting enough counties to represent the national variance and to limit the number of counties visited to control costs. This compromise was made by establishing a minimum cluster size.

Two factors were considered in the establishment of a minimum cluster or county size. First, consideration in regard to not limiting the range of settings in which Indians reside nationally. The within county variance justified the limitation of the sample to counties which either had a large density of Indians or a large population mass. Second, consideration of minimum cluster or county size included program considerations. Hence, counties with too few adult Indians fall outside the service area of the United States Office of Education/Office of Indian Education (USOE/OIE) on a practical basis. There appeared to be a need to focus on counties where there is a large enough number of adult Indians to justify program development. Logically, it can be argued that the minimum size cluster ranged from 200 to 300 adult Indians. Arbitrarily, the minimum size cluster was set at 250 adults. The elimination of all counties possessing less than 250 adults reduced the number of counties to be studied down to 325. This reduction in geography did not reduce the population of target adults significantly. Within the 325 counties reside 404,935 Indian adults 16 years or over. This represents greater than eighty-five percent of the Indian adults over 16 years of age residing in the continental United States according to the 1970 Census.

The next consideration in the specification of the sampling design was that of the stratification. Since the clusters were highly variable in size, it appeared imperative to utilize cluster size as a stratification variable. The use of cluster size or county as a stratification variable assured proper mixture of

large and small counties and provided efficiency to the data collection. In the stratification process, the efficiency lies in the control of the sample with regard to the number of counties selected from each cluster stratum. Hence, a lower percentage of small counties than of large counties can be chosen so as to reduce the number of counties to be visited. Likewise, a larger percentage of adults can be selected from the smaller counties than are selected from the large counties.

Nested within county boundaries are differences in regard to high and low density due to urban-rural, and due to services provided to "on and off" reservation Indian adults. By ordering the selection of counties by region, geographical representativeness was gained. Hence, the county unit for the two-stage cluster sample served to fulfill representation requirements for geography, demography and tribal/cultural by region.

Representation of sex and age membership were gained in the second stage of the sample. Through the use of a region-based quota matrix to assure the selection of matching proportions of the population on the variables of age and sex, categorical representativeness was obtained. The selection of quotas within categories randomly does not bias the sample. The selection process did not seriously slow down data collection.

The fourth consideration for the design of a sampling plan was the capability to generate national estimates. The two-stage cluster sample allowed the generation of weights through which national projections can be made. The two sets of proportional but unequal sampling fractions complicates the weighting formula

but national projections can be generated. In the generation of national estimates, Indians and other Native Americans were grouped to simplify the projection formula.

The population was divided into five strata based upon estimated number of Indian adults. The population was also ordered into five regions assembled for ease of data collection. The subdivision of these five regions was made into the 12 regions to which representation was desired. Numbering for random selection was contained within two subdivisions to assure adequate regional representation.

Quota Determination

In order to assure representation by sex and age a matrix for regional quotas was generated by subdividing the target population for each state into a 2 x 5 matrix of frequencies. The horizontal categories are male and female. The vertical categories are based upon subdivisions of age: 16 to 30; 30 to 40; 40 to 50; 50 to 60; and 60 and over. The frequencies were totaled for each region and multiplied by the sample for each selected county to develop site quotas.

Frame Designation

A second problem related to sampling design was in the area of constructing the sampling frames. The sampling frame builds from Title IV, Part A census of school divisions or systems. Although school divisions are not synonymous with county subdivisions, they are contained within county boundaries in every state except four. Two states, Washington and Oregon, do possess

school system attendance areas across county lines, so the merging of county lists had to be made according to addresses. All school districts within a county provided lists which were merged for subject selection. These lists of Indian children were to come from records which the schools keep pertinent to Public Law 81-874.

Indian children generate PL-874 money for public school districts because their parents live and work on property held in trust by the federal government. Although the original impetus for the impact aid program resulted from the defense activities of the federal government, the federal trust and tax-exempt status of Indian lands warranted inclusion of Indians in the program. While Indians attract a mere five percent of the annual PL-874 appropriation of $600 million,[2] the $31,137,000 allocated to school districts encompassing Indian reservations constitutes the most important single source of revenue for many of those districts. The monies are unrestricted and sometimes amount to as much as 40 to 60 percent of the total operating budget of a reservation school district.

As would be expected in such a case of unrestricted federal funds, some unethical practices result. Examination of PL-874 school lists of Indian children in certain counties revealed many cases of non-Indian names being included on the lists; the names of blacks, Mexican-Americans and other non-Indian persons were

[2]Hearings on Department of Labor and Health Education and Welfare appropriations for 1976 before subcommittee of House Committee on Appropriations, 94th Congress, 1975.

included on these lists. This list-padding made it impossible to rely on PL-874 lists for sample frame construction.

To remedy the problem of inaccurate record-keeping of Indian residents in counties, a multi-data source methodology was utilized in order to generate new listings in problem counties. Names for sampling frames came from several new sources, then, including tribal membership lists, voter registration lists and Indian Urban Center listings of Indians in specific counties. In addition, Indian data collectors were instructed to compile listings of residents in obscure areas who may not have been included on the other listings.

FINDINGS/DISCUSSION

The data collection effort in the present study is expected to be complete by January, 1980. Currently, the final report is planned to be complete by June 30, 1980. Since the project is being funded by an Office of Education grant, none of the findings can be discussed until the final report has been received by the grantor. However, several important problems which became salient in the course of conducting the present research warrant discussion at this time.

Problems related to sample frame construction and survey research of American Indians were discussed earlier. Two other problems related to educational needs assessment of special target groups should also be discussed: 1) the methods used by the Office of Education in conducting current needs assessments; and, 2) the relevance of adult education literature and learning theory to adult American Indians.

For the most part, needs assessments, as currently conducted by the Office of Education, merely amount to simple questionnaires administered to enrollees in adult education classes or ABE programs. Basically, the Office of Education asks these adult students to list their educational needs. Another variation is seen when adult educators conducting these ABE programs etc., are asked to list what they see as the needs of adults in their programs. Typically, these listings include general requests for more math skills, consumer skills, vocational education, etc.

One must question the validity of this method of educational needs assessment. If a community of alcoholics were asked what they perceive as their own personal needs, it is doubtful that many would request alcohol treatment centers. Although this example may seem extreme, the point should be clear that it is questionable as to how accurately adults can perceive their own educational needs. What is the motivation for complete honesty when an illiterate individual is asked about their needs for reading skills classes etc.? Also, how accurate are such individuals at recognizing the interface between employment opportunities and their perceived needs.

With regard to this problem related to educational needs assessment of adults, the present research has definitely offered an advance in needs assessment design. The field interview schedule, as mentioned earlier, does ask individuals what they perceive as areas of need and personal inadequacy. However, an advance is made by the including of actual testing questions to measure competency in areas of math computation, reading, consumer skills,

legal knowledge, etc. These questions were administered by a trained bi-lingual Indian interviewer who was selected from the community of the respondent. In this way, an accurate quantitative measure of actual needs can be determined.

A second problem or question which becomes salient in the present research is a more general problem, but one of great theoretical importance: How relevant is adult education literature and learning theory to American Indians? A good example of the way in which adult education literature and adult learning theory may not be relevant to American Indians is seen when examining trends in adult learning theory.

A weakness with developmental and adult educational theorists which does relate to the discussion of the relevance of adult education literature to American Indians and which can be mentioned briefly, is the lack of sensitivity to the position of social class which is demonstrated by these theorists. Adult educators have consistently focused, as developmental theorists have, on models of individual difference. Thus, adult educators focus on differences of learning styles of adults and how so-called "stages" of adult development affect adult learning potential.[3]

The point missed by these adult education theorists, which would tie adult education theory more closely to American Indian education, is that unequal life-skill attainment levels and occupational levels are based on basic social class inequality, not on educational inequality. Adult educators and the literature in

[3]See for example, A. B. Knox, 1977, Adult Development and Learning. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass; and Daniel Levinson, 1976. "Periods of Development of Men." Counseling Psychologist 6:21-25.

that field, suggests that changing unequal educational attainment levels for adults will necessarily result in change in life chances and the occupational structure for participating adults.

Adult educators, then, base their programs and practices on a theoretical basis which is false. They ignore the lessons of failure of the 1960's and early 1970's when the post-Johnsonian "war on poverty' mentality still prevailed in federal educational policy. This same mentality helped to create federal guaranteed loans and other programs which encouraged and supported the college education of working class children. Throughout the early 1970's educators were revelling about the new life-chances which had been afforded to working-class children. In many instances; these children became the first generation of their family to obtain a college degree. State college and university enrollments doubled at this time. But, with more persons receiving college degrees than ever before, class lines were not redrawn. The life-chances and occupational opportunities for these working class children did not change significantly. Instead of new opportunity, these new degree-holders found that employers merely changed occupational qualification requirements. Jobs such as secretarial positions now are found to require a college degree. The federal support and emphasis on education for social equality had little effect in that area.

These are the lessons which must be drawn into adult education theory if it, and programs based on it, are to be relevant to American Indians. Adult educators must re-evaluate programs and practices to assess whether their expectations are based on

a realistic theory of adult education. For adult education literature to be relevant to American Indians the role of adult education for such special groups must be constantly recognized. This important role of adult education for American Indians, and other particular minority target groups, is not tied merely to employment or life-skills opportunities. True, adult education in these areas will have some effect, but as lessons of the past have demonstrated, no significant, immediate change results.

What can change for American Indians through adult education, is a common consciousness for Indians--as Indians--which is directed toward social change. The importance of this role of adult education has been demonstrated and documented well by Freire (1971, 1973). This role of adult education for Indians has also been recognized by some Indian educators who refer to an Indian Process in education (NIEA Convocation Summary, 1979). These educators have tried to show how the "...self-determination process of Indians helping Indians to solve Indian education problems...will work, if tribal and Indian community leaders and members really believe...that 'their' Indian people really can solve 'their' own problems" (NIEA, p. 20).

Adult education programs for American Indians should be centered around development of life-coping and other basic skills, but adult educators must constantly be aware of the importance of basing these programs on a theory of education for social change and for development of a critical consciousness. In this way, adult education programs can become truly effective, since they will be based on a realistic theory of the relations between education, employment, life-chances for adult Indians and social change.

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